DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 420 053 CS 013 225

AUTHOR Veatch, Angela, Ed.
TITLE Focus on Literacy, A to Z: A Reading Consultant's Handbook.
PUB DATE 1998-00-00
NOTE 66p.; Exit Project, Curriculum and Supervision of Reading, Northeast Louisiana University. For the 1997 handbook, see ED 409 547.
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom - Teacher (052)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Biographies; Class Activities; Classroom Techniques; *Content Area Reading; Elementary Education; *Literacy; *Reading Comprehension; *Reading Readiness; Reading Teachers; Teaching Guides; *Vocabulary Development; *Word Recognition
IDENTIFIERS Historical Background

ABSTRACT

This handbook presents brief descriptions of various aspects of reading instruction and related lesson plans and class activities. Sections of the handbook discuss reading readiness, word recognition, word analysis; word meaning, comprehension, and content area reading. The handbook also offers brief biographies of Jeanne Chall, Theodore William Clymer, Dolores Durkin, William Holmes McGuffey, John Pikulski, Jeannette Veatch, and Noah Webster. Appendixes offer the Reluctant Readers Index, a Reading Hot List (a 15-item list of World Wide Websites on reading), a 16-item list of books and journals, a 13-item list of tests for reading consultants, and a chart listing readability levels for all Newbery Medal books. (RS)

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A Reading Consultant's Handbook

Northeast Louisiana University
College of Education

1998

CS013225

Focus on Literacy

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Dedicated to Dr. Harry Miller

Editor -- Angela Veatch

Publisher -- Sir Speedy

Northeast Louisiana University
Curriculum and Supervision of Reading
Summer 1998

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Reading Readiness

Readiness for reading is not an absolute state that can be measured fully and accurately (Harris & Smith, 1986, p.111). It depends largely on what is to be learned and how it will be presented. A person is not simply ready or unready to read. For a number of reasons, they are ready for some skills and not ready for other skills. Frank Smith (1978) uses a familiar phrase in describing the learning process-he calls "making sense" of a task or piece of information. The learner either makes sense of what he or she is to learn or it remains nonsense, not understood and not learned (Harris & Smith, 1986, p. 113).

Readiness is a factor in all learning, not just reading. The learner must be "ready" to relate new knowledge to what is known already. The learner needs to make sense of what is to be learned or it will remain nonsense to them. If a learner is not "ready" to read, then the learner cannot go any further in reading instruction. Studies by Bradley (1956), Blakely & Shadle (1961), and Powell & Parsley (1961) have demonstrated that a delay of reading instruction in favor of a readiness program for children who demonstrate a lack of readiness is usually productive. Typically children who are given readiness training reach and even surpass in reading achievement children who begin book reading immediately when they began school (Harris & Smith, 1986, p. 143).

If beginning reading is equated with sound-symbol decoding, the child must be able to differentiate among isolated sounds of the language and relate them to printed symbols. A child who is not "ready" to deal with sound and symbols will have problems in reading readiness. A big factor in readiness is a child building on what is already familiar and what makes sense. A child's background experience plays a big role in determining what makes sense. Children have fewer experiences to build on; thus making readiness a much more elusive factor. Also, readiness for any learning experience is greatly dependent on making sense of what is to be learned (Harris & Smith, 1985, p. 113). If a child does not have some experience that is already in his head and

that can be related to something that makes sense, then it is not meaningful, but confusing.

The Report of the National Committee on Reading gave explicit recognition in 1925 to the fact that all pupils who enter the first grade are not equally prepared for reading (Gray, 1941, p. 48). Several studies have been done about issues relating to reading readiness. Most of the studies were done about the factors that influence reading readiness. Studies by McLaughlin in Los Angeles and San Diego also supplied evidence that many of the first-grade pupils assigned to reading classes were mentally so immature that they were unable to learn to read successfully. Two years later Morphett and Washburne compared the progress of first-grade pupils of different chronological and mental ages. The comparison was made in vocabulary mastery, oral reading, and general reading progress and concluded that a mental age of 6.5 years is the optimum time at which to begin reading. They found, however, that some pupils between the mental ages of 6.0 and 6.5 years made satisfactory progress (Gray, 1941, p. 49). Research then showed that pupils who received kindergarten training made more rapid progress in reading than those who did not receive training in kindergarten. Witty and Kopel conducted a critical survey and found that reading should be delayed until children's background experience and mental growth enables them to find meaning in the tasks presented to them. It should also be delayed until this process of maturation has engendered a condition in which reversals are few and perception of words and other meaningful units are possible (Gray, 1941, pg. 49). They concluded that reading should not be taught until a child reaches the ages of 8 or 9. Petty pointed out that such factors as home, social status, health, and disciplinary or personality problems might outweigh the influence of certain other factors that correlate highly with success in learning to read. Gates, Bond, and Russell emphasized the fact that, to "the extent that the teacher's methods influence the pupil's techniques of learning, they also affect the predictive value of tests. Thus, if a teacher effectively emphasizes early phonetic attack, tests of blending, rhyming,

etc., they are likely to give higher correlation with reading progress in the class than in the class of a teacher who places less emphasis on the phonetic approach. Most of the studies today are emphasizing that a child's background experience and the things that make sense to them are important factors in reading readiness.

According to the writers of the Scott, Foresman and Company, there are some reading related skills, abilities, and understandings for which a minimum of development serves as a prerequisite to the beginning of formalized reading instruction. They include an adequate experiential base that facilitates the development of concepts and associated vocabulary, cognitive development, language development, metalinguistic awareness, interest in and attitudes toward reading, visual and auditory discrimination, and orientation skill. Also, the child needs to possess good hearing, vision, emotional health, psychomotor skills, a definite pattern of handiness, and a sense of directionality (Scott, Foresman and Company, 1988, p. 30). Experts disagree on which areas of development are more fundamental and research is helpful only in a limited sense.

The body of professional literature dealing with reading readiness is large and far ranging. One type of study addresses the issue of predicting which children will be successful in learning to read (Bonx & Dykstra, 1967). Studies seek to find a relationship between a factor that is hypothesized to be important to readiness (mental age, ability to distinguish between visual symbols, listening ability, etc.) and reading achievement. Many readiness factors have been studied as predictors of reading achievement in an attempt to identify the "best" predictor (Harris & Smith, 1986, p. 134). Studies of the factors relating to reading readiness have been accompanied by various efforts to determine through objective tests a pupil's readiness for reading. As early as 1930, Deputy gave first-grade pupils a mental test, a visual-visual association test, a test of word selection, a visual-auditory association test, and a test of content comprehension and recall (Harris & Smith, 1986, p. 51). Using Deputy's findings, a number of

investigators have attempted to develop reading-readiness tests. Therefore, studies have been developed on the validity of the tests. Witty and Kopel concluded that, "when used in conjunction with an intelligence test and teachers' judgments of reading readiness in terms of health and physical and social maturity, these devices appear very helpful in determining when children should begin to receive reading instruction." Many of the researchers agree with Witty and Kopel that reading readiness tests given with an intelligence test has merit.

With the facts now available it should be possible to carry on studies in the future that will be very productive in clarifying thinking concerning the requisites for learning to read, in developing tests that will reveal the extent of a pupil's readiness for reading, and in modifying teaching in the prereading period in order to promote desirable types of growth (Gray, 1941, p. 53). Standardized tests are now being administered to know what level of reading a child is on. In the future, we will probably see a wide range of different testing instruments for assessing reading, since there are so many different factors to consider.

Readiness is the result of interaction with the environment and maturation. Readiness must be considered in terms of what is to be learned and how it will be taught or presented. Readiness to read is usually expected to occur when a child enters school (Harris & Smith, 1986, p. 150). Some factors that are basic to readiness for reading include background experience, cognition, language, auditory and visual, acuity and discrimination, perception, physical development, emotional and social development, positive attitudes, and interest in reading. Most schools assess by giving standardized tests and some teachers have a checklist they use for teacher observation.

A good readiness reading program should include new topics and new information in a way that builds on children's previous knowledge. It can deepen children's understanding of topics they already know about and correct misconceptions that accompany initial learning. The teacher needs to remember their job is to find the best method to increase the student's reading skills.

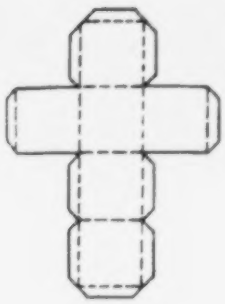
Here is a list of activities to increase reading readiness. These suggestions are geared for the use of parents (Harris & Smith, 1986, p. 117).

1. Encourage the child to describe something exciting, interesting, or unusual that happened today.
2. Play "I Spy" on the way to the grocery or when driving to church or to Grandma's house.
3. After sharing a story with a child, identify two events that happened in the story.
4. Give a set of two, three, or four directions that the child is to perform in the order named.
5. A deck of playing cards can be used in recognizing letters or numbers.
6. Have your child help with a recipe in the kitchen.
7. Tell an original story without an ending.

Activities for Reading Readiness

1. Dice Roll

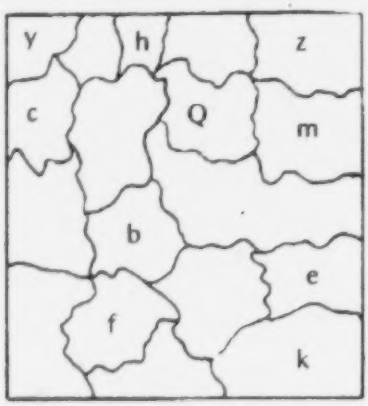
Use a large pair of dice, or make a cube from a sheet of construction paper as follows:



Write letters of the alphabet, or draw geometric shapes on each face of the dice. Put the same items on the second dice. In the game the child rolls the dice, names what comes up, and tells whether the items showing on each die are the same letter (or shape) or different. A point system can be added, if desired, so that each player tries to earn a set number of points. The game can be varied so that a player must give a word that begins with the letters that come up. For more advanced children, words can be written on the dice; the task is to match words or even pronounce them aloud.

2. Penny Toss

Make a large game board with letters, geometric shapes, or colors occupying sections of the board as follows:



Place the game board on the floor. Players stand several feet away from the board. Each player tosses a penny (or other marker) on the board surface. The task requires the player to identify the letter (or shape, or color) of the section the penny lands on. Points are earned for each correct response. Extra points can be awarded for saying words that begin with the letter (optional).

3. Group Storytelling

Participants sit in a circle. The first person starts a story with a statement such as, "I remember the time I was almost scared to death." The person to the left adds a sentence to the story and so on around the circle until each child has contributed. The process is then repeated with another child starting the story. The teacher can furnish story starters, or they can be created by the participants spontaneously.

4. Word Pairs

A stack of picture cards is created using common objects such as a cat, a dog, a bicycle and so forth. The cards are shuffled and placed face down. In turn,

each player draws a card, tells what the picture is, gives another example from the same group (category), and explains the relationship. For example, if a picture of a cat is drawn, the child might say, "This is a cat. A lion is another kind of cat."

Donna Money

Word Recognition

Word recognition may be defined as learning to recognize printed words from whatever cues he or she can use. These cues may be from their total configuration: the letters composing them, the sounds represented by those letters, and/or the meanings suggested by the context. By the meaning "recognition" we not only mean being aware that the word has been seen before, but knowing the pronunciations of the word The child must learn that printed words are signals for spoken words and that they have meanings analogous to those of spoken words. This is one of the most essential skills in the reading process (Harris & Sipay, 1984).

In order for children to understand and enjoy what they read, they must combine phonics and other word identification skills into an effective word recognition strategy (Adams, 1990). The terms, word recognition and decoding, are broader than phonics. Using phonics is only one of several important approaches to identifying words. Other clues include the grammar and syntax of a sentence, meaning (semantic) clues, word parts (prefixes, suffixes, base words), and familiarity with similar words. There is substantial evidence to suggest that word recognition skills should be taught directly rather than waiting for children to discover them on their own. Research indicates that effective readers are also strategic, they learn how and when to use combinations of word recognition skills (Adams, 1990).

Current theories of reading development suggest that there is a specific series of stages that children go through, each using a different way to process written material. In the first stage, pre-reading, the child recognizes words by how the word looks on the printed page. At a later stage, the child learns to sound words out by attending to letters and groups of letters. It is concluded that both auditory and visual cues benefit the pre-reader in developing word recognition skills (Stuart, 1990).

Beginning readers have the major task of associating oral language with its written equivalent. Young children have learned to communicate by using oral language within social context. To read, however, they must infer the communicative intent of printed words. This new task places demands on learners. They must learn that printed words represent a concept and spoken words. The task of young readers is to develop this functional concept of printed language as well as the recognition of letters and sounds. As concepts of print develop, children begin to associate meaning with written words in stories. They can then automatically recognize a group of words at sight. The development of a sight word vocabulary indicates that children are reasoning about the relationship between graphic symbols and meaning. Children use sounds, visual features, or background knowledge to develop this sight word knowledge. This usually consumes a major portion of their thinking through the middle of first-grade reading level.

When students are able read more words and longer stories, reading changes from an oral, shared experience to silent reading and discussion. The reader begins to focus on text-based information, usually the patterns in words and stories. Students begin reading longer stories and encounter unfamiliar words that are not contained in their sight vocabularies. Emerging readers have to develop new ways to figure out unfamiliar words. In addition to experiential knowledge and sight word knowledge, they begin to use sound analogies to decode words (Walker, 1996).

Some of the most difficult words for beginning readers are the three, four, and five letter words. Beginning readers retain words that have concrete meanings more readily than function words. Some function words are, for example, that, which, what, why, and these. Because function words are very frequent in reading, the student must rely on phonic analysis for identification. Constantly "sounding out" words make the student lose fluency and meaning. The teacher must find ways other than phonics to develop instant recognition of these words. Sometimes teaching one word at a time may be necessary. Many

students can master function words in groups of three or four. There are guidelines and techniques for teaching function words. Following guiding principles, teaching strategy, parental involvement, motivational aids and reviewing do help students when reading aloud. The more students read, however, the more accurate they become in word recognition.

How do children learn to figure out unknown words? There are many different parts to the skill area of word recognition. Some people advocate the compare/contrast theory. This is based on searching through a store of known words and comparing the new (unknown) word to those already known. This is done rather than applying rules about grapheme-phoneme correspondences. When a child encounters an unknown word, they would begin a search through the words in their "cognitive word store," comparing the unknown words. They would look for the largest known units and combine them with the unknown units. Once they arrive at the pronunciation for the largest units, by comparing the unknown with the known, they would then recombine the word and arrive at the correct identification.

This process happens automatic with the child, once the parts are identified. The training of compare/contrast strategy can result in a significant increase in the ability to decode unfamiliar words. In this theory it is noticed that readers tend to form their own rules for analyzing unknown words with known words.

Context clue is another way that some children identify words in a text. Though this is a good way to help identify words, children who overuse context clues fail to attend to letter-sound associations and may misidentify words. This could cause them difficulty in constructing meaning from a passage. Conversely, children who do not effectively use meaning clues often sound out nonsense words or are so slow and laborious in word recognition that they can not draw meaning from the words that they are reading. Only when children are taught combinations of strategies do they move toward becoming efficient readers (Biemiller, 1970, Samuels, 1985).

Word recognition also has an effect on reading comprehension. At the beginning stages of learning to read, the attention is focused on the decoding aspects of the task. Since processing information for meaning also requires attention, as long as the reader's attention is on decoding, what has been read cannot be comprehended. A fluent reader can decode automatically and can attend to processing meaning at the same time as decoding. When a new word appears, the reader's attention is directed back to the task of decoding. Once the decoding problem is solved, the reader's attention can be brought back to processing meaning. Beginning readers cannot easily comprehend, because their attention is being directed to decoding. Meaning can be accessed by rereading a passage several times. In the early stages of reading instruction, shared reading is the framework for teaching word recognition skills. After a selection has been shared to promote interest and comprehension, it is read again with a focus on language patterns, including elements such as repetition, rhyme, and sentence patterns. These elements provide important clues to word recognition (Holdaway, 1980). Teachers who are aware of how difficult it is for beginning readers to comprehend text, allow students enough time to read a passage silently several times before testing their comprehension or asking them to read aloud. This procedure allows the student enough time and trials to switch their attention to the comprehension of material read (Harris & Sipay, 1984).

Repeated reading is an effective way in increasing word recognition, fluency and comprehension. This technique is based on the "automaticity theory," which suggests that fluent readers are those who decode text automatically, leaving attention free for comprehension. Fluency is refereed to as the rapid, efficient, accurate identification of written text. Oral reading that is accurate, is expressive, and that is accomplished at an appropriate rate, is a good indication of strong word recognition skills. Emphasis is on multiple reading techniques including practice and repetitions. It has influenced educational practice since the 1970's. This technique is broadly adaptable and

widely applicable, helping both children and adults become better readers (Samuels, 1997). Teachers need to realize the importance of practice as a necessary condition for the development of automatic decoding. Word recognition comes more fluently through reading (Harris & Sipay, 1984). Children are more likely to draw meaning from the text when they encounter familiar words. This strengthens their ability to figure out still more words.

One of the best ways to help young children become familiar with the structure of written language is to read aloud to them. For the younger children, shared reading provides an effective vehicle for improving word recognition through repetition. Oral reading also serves as a very valuable source of assessment for teachers and for students themselves. By listening to a student's oral reading, a teacher can gain valuable insights into the student's word recognition strategies and the degree of that student's fluency. As they read aloud, students become more aware of any word recognition problems and look for ways to correct them.

Activities for Word Recognition

It is the job of the educator to help student develop basic sight vocabulary and teach various skills that the student may use independently to analyze words and their meaning. Some activities that may be used to develop these skills are multi-sensory. One activity that will help develop multi-sensory skills involves shaving cream. Students apply the shaving cream to their desktops. Teachers use this method to reinforce vocabulary and spelling words. Calling out the words and having the students write them in the shaving cream helps with word recognition. Many people make words out of sandpaper and have students trace their fingers over the words. These are creative and stimulating ways to review.

The game of SWAT is another method of reviewing. The teacher will place the vocabulary words in a chart or write them on the chalkboard. Then the students will compete against each other at who can "swat" the correct word the fastest. This works very well in having the students recognize the words quicker and more fluently.

Finding the Heart is a game that works well for sight words. Words are placed in a pocket chart with a plastic or paper heart behind a certain word. The students then have turns to "find the heart." They point to a word and must say the word correctly to look behind it to see if the heart is there. If the word is not said correctly, then they do not get to look. The teacher can give a special incentive to the person who finds the heart. This game may be used frequently, by changing the heart to something else, for example, "find the shamrock."

The most common activity in teaching word/vocabulary recognition is using word cards. Teachers often put vocabulary words on cards to present them before reading stories. This is a good way to drill words, whole class or individually. Teachers always get creative when making the cards.

There is so much that happens when a child reads. Teachers need to listen to the child's reading and try to discover why the child makes certain

miscues. This will enable them to diagnose children's reading problems with greater insight. Knowing more about the complexity of the reading process helps the teacher do a better job of teaching children to read. As children begin to read more independently, their continued practice provides many opportunities to strengthen word recognition skills. With varying levels of support, such as teacher-guided reading, cooperative reading, or independent reading, children are encouraged to practice these skills in more challenging texts.

Mary Ellen Hassell

Word Analysis

Structural analysis is a way of analyzing the printed word in order to determine its pronunciation and meaning by identifying its meaningful parts-roots, inflectional endings, prefixes, suffixes and syllables. The syllables are blended into the sound as the individual scrutinizes the word (Bush and Huebner, 1970, p. 72).

There are simple inflected, compound and derived forms of known roots in which the individual identifies the prefixes, roots and suffixes as meaningful units to words. There are forms in which the individual identifies suffixes and recognizes the grammatical function to them. Then there are forms in which the affixes must be recognized, though changed in spelling or pronunciation. Analysis involves the memory of word form and the imagery for word form. The imagery of word form entails configuration or shape of the word to associate with the word. Memory of word form deals with the repetition of words to be programmed in the individual's memory.

Syllabication is where individuals break words into parts, pronounce them and blend them into words. This helps in pronunciation of the word, defining the word, spelling the word and writing where they can visualize the parts of a word. The teaching procedures involve visual and auditory experiences. They also encompass children examining the structural pattern under teacher's guidance, recording chalkboard words to use them orally and the generalization of patterns. Children can use the patterns in other settings such as writing, reading and workbook exercises.

A syllable is a letter or group of letters that form a pronunciation unit. Every syllable contains a vowel blend. Only in a syllable that contains a diphthong is there more than one vowel sound. Diphthongs are vowel blends. There are two types of syllables. One is open-syllables that end in vowel sounds. The other one is closed-syllables that end in consonant sounds. Syllables may in turn be classified as accented or unaccented. Polysyllabic

words may have primary, secondary or tertiary accents. Readiness for learning syllabication includes the ability to hear syllables as pronunciation units. The ability to hear syllables as pronunciation units can successfully be generated as early as first grade.

Teaching students to identify the meaning-bearing parts of a word is morphemes. Morphemes are word roots, prefixes, suffixes and inflected suffixes. Students need to expand their knowledge of word meanings by analyzing words into familiar roots and affixes. This process is called word analysis. The word "transportation" has the root "port," the prefix "trans" and the suffix "action." Students who can analyze words in this way have strategies they can use in reading that enable them to identify and understand a large number of words. Structural analysis or analysis of words into morphemes has been an important part of vocabulary instruction. Before the end of third grade, students will be confronted with an onslaught of affixed words. Even first grade books contain many inflections. Student must be able to read these words (Johnston, P. 1985, P. 634-635).

Content vocabulary terms from compound word and recognizable stems and affixes are the best candidates for pre-reading instruction. Classroom teachers can readily demonstrate techniques for predicting the meanings of these words, because each of their isolated parts will always represent a meaningful unit. Words such as "unsystematic" warrant instruction and are more recognizable because of its English roots. Whenever feasible, teach the principles of word analysis using terms that have English roots. Some affixes are more helpful than others, and knowing which affixes to emphasize during pre-reading instruction will minimize students' confusion.

In order to foster productive instruction with affixes, the essential objectives for lessons are named. All objectives reflect the importance of promptness as well as decoding for comprehension. Affixes become common as students advance in their ability to read. Because affixes consist of prefixes, inflectional suffixes and derivational suffixes, the question of a sequence for

teaching affixes comes to mind. These procedures include common inflectional endings, readily understood derivational suffixes, common prefixes and other prefixes and suffixes.

The first guideline of decoding is to offer instruction concerning word structure. It is important for the students to experience the value of what they are expected to learn and to actively participate in the practice. This will provide some instruction about suffixes prior the students reading new vocabulary in the text. (Mason and Au, 1989, P. 312). At one time prefixes stood out in the text because hyphens separated them from roots. Because hyphens are much less common now, increased attention must go to the prefixes to ensure that students recognize them in unfamiliar derivatives. To promote correct conclusions by other students, teacher should deliberately select words that appear to have prefixes and suffixes but in fact do not and then act out decoding procedures similar to the one just portrayed. By doing this in a number of occasions, teachers provide a model that permits students to apply what they have heard and observed.

Because the known word assists with an unknown word, the second guideline of decoding is to divide the unknown root into syllables before the search for the known word starts. To foster independence of self-reliance in recognizing new words, teachers need to keep certain factors in mind when they decide to do activities with new vocabulary. A list of these factors are: words in students' oral vocabularies, context in which the new word appears, spelling and pronunciation of the new word, students' ability to use contextual cues, and structural cues and words in students' reading vocabularies.

For word analysis to be most effective is to begin with concepts that are most meaningful to students and are exemplified by words appearing in material being read. Provide representative examples of the concept being taught and develop clear instructional steps. Teach the analysis with students' background knowledge with text information. Analytic techniques are not valuable tools on their own, but when placed in conjunction with reader knowledge and text

context is valuable. The process that will develop the child's skills for blending part of words into whole words is as follows: begin with regular compound words, move to root words with their inflectional ending in contextual situations and have the individuals listen for syllabication. This will undoubtedly unlock new words to the child's vocabulary as they pronounce them and understanding their meanings. If a child has difficulties reading, it may be traced to their inability to relate to the structural analysis process (Mason and Au, 1990, p. 173). Word analysis must be taught in context and in conjunction with text-meaning cues. This enables students to recognize words and derive unfamiliar words with the analysis process.

Word Analysis Activities

1. A lesson for singular and plural.

The teacher prints "pet" on chalkboard and has the children read it. The she suggests comments about the children having more than one pet in classroom, and prints "pets." After reading "pets," other familiar roots are written to which -s is added such as:

top	girl	boy	hat	car	room	dog	bat	cat
tops	girls	boys	hats	cars	rooms	dogs	bats	cats

2. A lesson for the inflectional suffix -ed.

The inflectional suffix -ed is sometimes referred to as a past tense marker. The teacher asks "Did anyone play yesterday?" Then she then writes one complete sentence containing the word "play," and an incomplete sentence. Someone is asked to complete the sentence using the past tense -ed. The teacher must point out the added ending and explain its relationship to the word.

3. Lesson for derivational suffixes.

Like all instruction for word structure, known roots are a starting point in lessons of derivational suffixes. Teachers must explain that "less" means "without." The teacher then discusses a number of different way to say that many people are without homes. Then she writes the sentence: "Many people do not have a home." The teacher then asks a student to give another way to re-write this statement. The student will respond by saying "homeless." The teacher will provide a visual by writing, "homeless = without a home," on the board.

4. A lesson for syllabication.

The teacher lists two-syllable words on the chalkboard. Pupils divide words into syllables by drawing a line between parts. Students then divide their own words into syllables.

pa/per clean/ing boil/ing eat/ing

5. Using suffix -ly.

Write words on chalkboard and ask students to add -ly and say the word with the suffix.

6. Lesson on silent -e.

Have students read the following pairs of words.

fat-fate	bath-bathe
man-mane	bit-bite
mad-made	cap-cape
Sam-same	cub-cube

Ask students "Why do the two words sound different?"

7. Lesson on vowel digraphs.

Vowel digraphs in which first vowel sound is long, the second is silent. Teacher list words containing given digraphs.

rain wait plain

8. Teacher and pupils read together.

Pupils identify like parts (sound and sight). Pupils use words in sentences.

rain, plain, wait, eat, read, meat, tree, wee, sleep

Rhonda K. Jones

Word Meaning

Word meaning is when the vocabulary words are readily recognized with the intended meaning. Groups of letters can represent meaning directly, and when students learn this, they will be much less puzzled by unusual spellings they encounter. For one example of how meaning works in the spelling system, think of the prefix re-; whether we hear it pronounced "ree" as in rethink or "ruh" as in remove, its spelling stays the same because it directly represents meaning. Why is composition not spelled Composition? By building connections between meaning parts and their derivations, we enlarge our vocabulary. This is a powerful feature of English spelling that very few people know. This interaction of spelling and meaning opens up a whole new frontier in exploring and learning about words.

No one needs to convince a teacher the importance of vocabulary. Teachers should know how to introduce word meaning so that the students can understand. Word meaning is a very important step in teaching students to understand what they are reading. As the student begins to understand the subject area and word knowledge, they are successful in understanding the meaning of each word. The teacher should use this information to expand the vocabulary of his or her students (Fergan & Mangrum, 1981, pg. 10).

There are four components of reading every child will experience at some level. The components are: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The infant listens to family members and friends as they use words with him/her. Soon the child is able to say whole words. For example, many parents teach their child to say the word ball. To the amazement of their parents, most children are able to say ball by the age of eleven to twelve months old.

Some words in our listening and speaking vocabularies may not be in our reading and writing vocabularies. It has been found that people know certain words as a part of their listening, speaking, and reading vocabularies, but they can not correctly write all the words. One of the continual tasks of every teacher

is to help students increase these four vocabularies. You will want to make sure children can listen to and understand many words, use them in conversation, recognize them in print, and learn to spell them. The teacher's concern is to help students develop a reading vocabulary, which will help them comprehend.

There is no precise agreement on the size of vocabularies at various age levels. Research findings for twelfth graders vary on their estimates of vocabulary size between 15,000 and 45,000 words. The lack of agreement seems to be due to the manner in which "word" is defined. Some educators consider walk, walking, and walked as one word; other educators count each definition of a word as a new instance of a word. In the latter case, the word run, which has at least 130 definitions, would be considered as 130 separate words.

High school students, like all freshmen, are constantly adding new words to their vocabularies. Although the period of vocabulary growth is most rapid between 2.5 and 7 years of age, growth remains considerable as long as schooling is continued. When schooling is discontinued, most adults add only about twenty-five new words a year to their vocabulary. In the middle to latter years of life, there is some evidence of overall decline in vocabulary size (Bear, 1996, pg. 127).

As a word comes into our vocabulary, it generally passes through at least three distinct stages of specific understanding. At first we have only a very specific understanding or association with the word. This means that the learner associates only a single definition, instance, event, or object with the word. For example, the word sofa at this level is perceived as a specific object of a precise size, shape, or color. The object is probably located in the living room of the learners home. The learner is not aware that there are other sofas located in other homes, stores, and offices.

At the second stage, the learner has more than a specific understanding of the word; he or she begins to develop a functional understanding. Now the learner can answer the question, "What is the function of a sofa?" At this level

sofa becomes something we sit on or recline upon, and sofa can be used in a sentence to demonstrate understanding.

At the third and most abstract level of understanding, the learner develops a concept of sofa. For our purposes, a concept can be thought of as a cluster of impressions or perceptions for which words are used as labels. At the third level, the learner understands that sofas come in a variety of shapes, sizes, and colors, to mention a few things, and that they are part of a larger category called furniture. At this level of understanding, the learner has a more complete understanding of the word sofa. Since word meanings are constantly changing, it is probably safe to say that the complete understanding of a word is never acquired.

Words, as they come into our vocabularies, do not automatically or naturally rise through the three stages of this hierarchy. Many words are transfixed at the specific or functional levels and never reach the general or perceptual level. Students whose vocabularies contain words principally at the specific or functional levels will have serious problems understanding their reading assignments, since authors communicate at the general or conceptual vocabulary level. It is our responsibility as teachers to encourage and foster vocabulary growth in number of words as well as depth of meaning. Students need to know many words and need to have the fullest meaning possible of the words they know.

Today's secondary school students take a variety of courses during their years in school. The variety of courses contains many new words students must learn in order to master the subject area. While most subject area teachers are aware of the importance of vocabulary to the understanding of their subject area, many teachers fail to teach for conceptual understanding of words. Their strategy is to cover as many words as possible, briefly defining each as they go along. Research does not demonstrate that mere incidental exposure to large number of words expands vocabulary into conceptual understandings of words. For the most part, teachers who rush through vocabulary lessons, briefly and

only orally defining words, are wasting both their time and that of the students (Flood, 1984, pg. 122).

Words are understood at three levels of understanding. A word becomes transfixed in the hierarchy of understanding at the specific, functional, or conceptual level depending on how it is experienced or learned. Asking students to look up a list of words in a dictionary generally transfixes those words at the specific level in the hierarchy. The word generally transfixes at the functional level when the students must define words as used in sentences, obtain suitable synonyms, and write a single sentence using each word. Providing direct experiences with new words and asking students to incorporate the new words into their written and oral assignments, as well as their daily discussions, generally transfixes the new words at the conceptual level of understanding.

As a rule, the more directed experiences a student has with a word, the more likely the word is to become transfixed at the conceptual level of understanding. The more exciting experiences the students have with the word, the more likely the word will become transfixed at the functional level. As a teacher, it is important to listen and find out the levels at which the students understand. Then the teacher must make it clear to each student in order to expand their definitions of words.

Word Meaning Activity

Activity

Multiple Meaning Charade Cards

Materials

Multiple meaning charade cards

Small stuffed frog

Books by Fred Gwynne:

The King who Rained a Chocolate Moose for Dinner

The Sixteen Hand Horse

A Little Pigeon Toad

Objectives

TLW define homonym, homograph, and homophone.

TLW identify the various meanings of multiple meaning words and phrases.

Procedure

Begin this lesson by explaining that words or phrases sometimes look or sound the same but have very different meanings. Use the example from the focus: to say that you have a frog in your throat does not mean that you have a small green animal in your mouth. Give definitions and examples for homonyms (one of two or more words that have the same sound and often the same spelling, but differ in meaning), homographs (a word spelled the same as another but differing in meaning and origin), and homophones (a word having the same sound as another but differing in spelling, origin and meaning). Introduce the various books that you will use in explaining the different meanings.

Martha French

Reading Comprehension

The focus thus far has been on various elements of reading, the process of learning the code that is used to transcribe our language and the building of an on-sight recognition vocabulary of printed words. We now turn our attention to the function and development of reading, the understanding of the language, reading comprehension.

Reading comprehension is the ability to read a selection and understand its meaning as well as the ability to grasp the vocabulary, structure, and concepts in that selection. It is also the application to the content of the techniques, operations, and processes of thought (Maggart, 1990, pg.6). Most educators would agree that the primary reason for reading anything is to understand. Without that purpose there would be little reason for reading. A primary concern of teachers is helping students to develop meaningful concepts as they read. Unless the pupils learn to synthesize meanings as they read though the lines of print, they are wasting their time (Maggart, 1990, pg.300). Some children comprehend little, while others glean much from print. These factors and others along with lack of interest in reading form limitations that uphold success in developing proper reading comprehension.

In recent history there have been changes in perspectives on reading comprehension. One change is the shift away from the idea that reading comprehension is finding determinant meanings. This has moved towards the notion that reading comprehension requires recognition, that text has indeterminant meanings, and the text empowers readers to create meaning (McNeil, 1992, pg. 217). Despite the changing perspectives, each individual perspective retains the power to influence different individuals in different contexts.

During the past two decades a substantial body of information has been reported on the skills and strategies that people use and adapt in reading. The emphasis from a practical and theoretical view in general has been on what a

reader does during learning. It is said that "what a reader does before he reads largely determines what he will achieve"(Vacca, 1981, pg. 119). There are many strategies and techniques and many developing strategies and techniques for the improvement of reading comprehension. The strategies are designed to aid educators in one or more of the following ways:

1. Activate students prior knowledge.

2. Guide students reading of a text.

3. Foster active and engaged reading.

4. Reinforce concepts gleaned from the text reading. Many of these strategies may substitute or augment parts of the general framework of comprehension (Tierney, 1990, pg. 58).

Gibson and Levin (1975) maintained that mature readers develop and use varying strategies for dealing with different kinds of reading material (Vacca, 1981, pg. 119). The students will move towards meaning at various levels of comprehension as they use the strategies provided. Through the use of three level reading guides teachers will give students a feel for what it means to comprehend at literal, interpretive, and applied levels (Vacca, 1981, pg.118).

Because reading is a thoughtful process, it embraces the idea of levels of comprehension for development. The three-level guides, which are levels of comprehension, are recommended for that development:

1. The Literal level (level 1) is another way of saying students can "read the lines" of your content material. Students stay with print sufficiently to get the drift of the author's intent. In simple terms, a literal recognition of that message determines what the author says.

2. The interpretive level (level 2) is laced with inferences about the author's intended meaning. How the reader "teases out" implied ideas by combing information is an integral part to the interpretive process.

3. The applied level (level 3) is akin to the act of discovery. It underscores the creative nature of reading comprehension. By guiding students at the applied level, it will show them how to synthesize information, express opinions, draw

additional insights, and fresh ideas from content materials (Vacca, 1981, pg. 122).

Before constructing a guide, however the teacher has to make at least two important decisions. You should examine content material to decide what information to emphasize and how much assistance each student needs (Vacca, 1981, pg. 126). Levels of comprehension interact with one another during reading; in all probability levels are inseparable among mature readers. Nevertheless, for instructional purposes, students should experience each level in order to get a feel for the component processes involved in comprehending. Furthermore, three-level guides will help students develop a good sense of conceptual complexity in text material (Vacca, 1981, pg. 138).

In recent years researchers have come to realize that reading comprehension is derived from basic activity of the brain. This activity is the continuing effort to make sense of the environment by building a personal model of the world, replete with cognitive, affective, and motor elements. Any text that is being read is part of that world model. The basis of that ever-expanding model is the individual's world knowledge, the prior experience unique to that person. Since every individual's prior knowledge is unique, the mental model created by each person is also unique. What each reader brings to the reading of a text is the total of his or her prior knowledge organized as a model of the world. The text stimulates relevant aspects of the reader's model of the world. The components to look for are new knowledge, new ways of organizing or integrating prior knowledge, and new attitudes and perspectives result. The reader may then say that comprehension has taken place (Maggart, 1990, pg. 300).

In the future of reading comprehension attempts will be made to throw light on two questions:

(1) What should be taught in the name of reading comprehension?

(2) How should instruction be delivered?

Answers to these questions reflect the major shifts in thinking about reading comprehension . From traditional views, which emphasize the importance of gaining the author's meaning and acquiring the meaning that resides in text, to interactive views, which assume that the knowledge readers bring to text serves as a filter for interpreting and constructing the meaning of a given text. Finally, to the transactional view, which regards reading as a generative act by which the reader 's emotions, cognitive activity, purposes, and situation determine how the text is to be transformed (McNeil, 1992, pg.118).

In summation, reading comprehension is a major concern of learning in today's society. Yet, thousands of children are denied the opportunities to learn from print because they fail to master the process of reading. Instead they develop negative attitudes toward books, teachers, reading, and schools. It is critical for teachers to learn as much about the teaching of reading as possible. It is equally important that they learn how to help those students who have yet to experience success with the task. No group of children is immune to reading difficulties (Maggart, 1996, pg. 6). Strategies such as the three-level guide can be used to help teachers adopt the role of child advocate and make sure that all children have appropriate opportunities to become literate.

The basic goals of reading are to enable children to gain an understanding of the world and themselves, to develop an appreciation and an interest, to find solutions to their personal and groups problems, and to develop strategies by which they can become independent comprehenders. Logically, comprehension should be considered the heart of reading instruction, and the major goal of that instruction should be the provision of learning activities that will enable students to think about and react to what they read, in short, to read for meaning.

Reading Comprehension Activities

(1) Organization - Write the sentences of a story on card strips. Have students arrange the sentences into a story.

(2) Summary - Have students read a paragraph and write three ideas they gained from their reading.

(3) Main Idea - Have the students read a paragraph and develop a new title for the paragraph.

(4) Imagery - Have the student read a descriptive paragraph and have him/her describe an individual or an event in that paragraph.

(5) Simply read, read, read!

Meagan Brown

Content Area

The origins of content area reading instruction can be traced back to the 1920's when the U. S. Bureau of Education acknowledges that each subject matter area contributes directly to the development of reading competency (Gray, 1925). This acknowledgment lead to the slogan "every teacher should be, to a certain extent, a teacher of reading." Content area reading shows students how to use reading as a vehicle for learning. First, content area reading is not a static process where students see their primary responsibility as memorizing information from a text, a video, or a lecture. Rather, it is a dynamic process involving the students' ability to listen to others, entertain various points of view or sources on a given topic, and construct meaning. Second, reading is not viewed as being distinct from other forms of communication. In fact, the students' ability to acquire meaning from text can be enhanced when the teacher integrates writing, listening, and viewing activities. Finally, learning is increasingly becoming dependent on the use of technology. The use of the Internet, computers, video recorders and other technologies provides rich resources to promote learning. Therefore, content area reading is a process of making meaning from content in a manner that uses technology, integrates reading, writing, speaking, viewing and listening, and allows students to learn in a social context that promotes their ability to construct their understanding from multiple perspectives and multiple sources of information.

There are five guiding principles of instruction for reading in the content area. These principles reflect a view that content area reading is functional, and that it should recognize the various constraints (i.e., class size, available instructional time, student ability, and motivation) that exist in the classroom.

1) **Content area reading instruction is based on the assumption that students acquire meaning through the application of strategies, skills, and**

prior knowledge to text material. Content reading, therefore, is functional and driven by the learner's need to acquire knowledge. The goal of the teacher is to create and direct an instructional sequence using activities and strategies that will enhance student's acquisition of knowledge. To the student, content reading is a strategic process to acquire meaning It is not a set of skills or exercises taught in isolation of content. To the teacher, content reading instruction consists of employing teaching strategies and instructional designs that direct students through the curriculum to accomplish the instruction objectives.

2) **The classroom is a dynamic social, cultural, and intellectual environment where students acquire information and construct knowledge**. Content area reading instruction draws on the teacher's ability to evaluate the diverse social elements involved in classroom learning and the sources of information that contribute to that intellectual environment. Instruction within the environment draws upon the student's knowledge individually and collectively. Similarly, instruction should present learning activities similar to those encountered in everyday problem-solving tasks that demand social interactions among individuals of various educational and social backgrounds. This complex and diverse nature of the social environments in school are characterized by Greene (1989, pg. 144).

3) **Content area reading instruction provides a context for students to apply their knowledge of information literacy**. Although the primary source of classroom information is a single textbook the student is more likely to become actively involved in learning when they make use of multiple text sources, as well as visual media such as videotapes, films, slides, transparencies, audiotapes, and compact diskettes. Learning from sources of information made available through computer technology is becoming increasingly evident in classroom instruction; thus, content area reading instruction should draw on new

instructional technology and existing text-based sources of information to promote learning.

4) **Content area reading instruction aims to facilitate active learning**. Instruction in the subject matter areas traditionally has proceeded on the assumption that curriculum is shaped by the objectives and content identified in curriculum guides, textbooks, and state and local educational agencies. As a result, many teachers attend primarily to the content to be delivered rather than the process of delivering that content. Active processing of information requires much more than committing information to memory, because individuals differ in the ways they organize and interpret information. Acknowledging the students' diverse interpretations of information, the content area teacher can draw on the students' ability to describe their strategies for constructing meaning, as well as model strategies that allow students to monitor their own processing of information. These strategies are functional.

5) **Instructional strategies and activities in the content area are adaptable to the constraints of the classroom**. Teachers experience considerable demands on their time. Faced with frequent additions to the curriculum, the pressure of accountability, the frustrations of balancing the students' needs with the curriculum mandated by the district, and the increasing responsibility of the school to address innumerable societal ills, teachers are severely restricted in the amount of time they can devote to learning or applying new instructional strategies. Instructional content area reading acknowledges these constraints by advancing instructional strategies that are practical, readily adaptable to a variety of instructional contexts, and which promote an effective learning environment for teachers and students.

To summarize, the purpose of content area reading instruction is to improve the students' learning through the integration of instructional strategies in the subject matter curriculum, rather the presentation of strategies in isolation.

Content area reading instruction is functional, directed by the students' academic needs as well as their cultural and social background. Content reading is a process to facilitate learning. The focus of control is the teacher, who serves to provide information, to present strategies that facilitate learning, and to direct the students' ability to become independent learners. To accomplish these goals the teacher assumes much more than the role of information provider. The teacher now assumes the role of a coach, maestro, and a navigator. As a coach, the teacher models learning strategies in an effort to enhance the students' insight into their own cognitive processes. As a coach, teacher must recognize the individual and aggregate characteristics of the learners, providing feedback and direction to both of the individuals and the group. As a maestro, the teacher must assess the students' knowledge of the content area and assist them as they engage in activities centered on classroom instruction. And as a navigator, the teacher facilitates discussions, questioning activities, demonstrations, and hands-on projects and authentic learning tasks designed for the whole class, cooperative groups, or independent learning. (Ryder & Graves, 1998, pgs. 7-9). The primary goal of content reading is to teach the child how to comprehend the totality of the section.

Content Area Activities

Web Mapping

Materials: paper, pencil, textbook

Time Period: One class period (Fifty minutes)

Description:

The web allows the students to note the relationships among concepts presented in the text. Webs can be constructed for different sections of a text, depending on how in-depth the focus of study is. Steps to follow:

1) Draw a circle for the center of the web. The center of the web contains he main idea.

2) Write the main idea from the paragraph, page or chapter in the center of the circle. This should be written in bold letters to draw attention to it.

3) List supporting information related to the main idea. The spokes radiating from the web contain the related information.

4) Create the web by placing key words or phrases on new spokes until ideas are exhausted. Information that is directly related to the main idea should be identified and listed in smaller circles at the end of the spokes emanating from the center circle.

5) The class explores and discusses the web, adding, deleting, or modifying ideas as needed.

Outline

Materials: paper, pencil, and Science textbook

Time Period: One class period (Fifty minutes)

Description:

The outline is similar to the web and the graphic organizer in that major concepts and pertinent details are identified. In the outline, information is hierarchically organized. An example of an outline that could be used for the topic on Fibers from a science textbook might look like the following:

Fibers

I. Natural
- A. Vegetable
  - 1. Cotton
  - 2. Linen
- B. Animal
  - 1. Wool
  - 2. Silk

II. Man Made
- A. Chemical
  - 1. Acrylic
  - 2. Rayon
  - 3. Nylon
  - 4. Polyester
  - 5. Acetate

Patricia Winters

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Jeanne Chall

Jeanne Sternlicht Chall, a psychologist and educator, was born January 1, 1921. Chall's birthplace was in Shendishov, Poland, to Hyman and Eva Sternlicht. She became a naturalized U.S. citizen in 1927. In 1946, at the age of twenty-five, she married Leo P. Chall whom she divorced in 1964.

Her extensive education included a B.B.A. from City University of New York where she graduated cum laude; M.A. and Ph.D. from Ohio State University in 1947 and 1952; and an honorary M.A. from Harvard in 1965. During her career she worked as an assistant at Columbia University, Institute of Psychological Research, New York City, (1943- 45); Ohio State University, Columbus, research associate and instructor (1945- 49); City University of New York, instructor (1950- 54), assistant professor (1954-62), associate professor (1962-1965); Harvard University, professor of education 1965-present.

Chall was a member of various educational organizations including the following: International Reading Association (member of board of directors, 1961-65), American Educational Research Association, National Academy of Education, American Psychological Association, National Society for the Study of Education (member of board of directors, 1971-81), Beta Gamma Sigma, and Phi Delta Kappa. However, Chall was most noted and respected for her writings. In 1948, Chall and Edgar Dale co-authored a book called A Formula for Predicting Readability. A few of the books Chall authored on her own are as follows: Readability: An Appraisal of Research and Application, Ohio State University Press, 1958; Learning to Read: The Great Debate, McGraw, 1975; and Education and the Brain, University of Chicago Press, 1978.

For her generous contributions to education and research she received honors such as the Annual Publication Award by the National Reading Conference in 1975 for an outstanding contribution to the field of reading education. Then in 1979, Chall was awarded the citation of merit by the International Reading Association. The Townsend Harris Medal was bestowed

upon Chall this year as well. Her greatest lifetime achievement was being named to the Reading Hall of Fame in 1979.

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Meagan Brown

Theodore William Clymer

PERSONAL: Clymer was born April 2, 1927, in St. Paul, Minn.; son of Theodore Fredrick (a businessperson) and Annette (Newton) Clymer. He served in the U.S. Navy from 1945 to 1946. Clymer married Lois Brandt on December 30, 1947. Theodore and Lois had two children together, Loma and Todd. Clymer received his Bachelor of Science from Wisconsin State College in 1949. He attended University of Minnesota and received his Master of Science in 1951 and in 1952 he earned his Ph.D. His political affiliation is Independent Republican. His religious practice is Unitarian Universalist. Clymer resides in Minneapolis, Minnesota. His office is located on the campus of the University of Minnesota, 108 Burton Hall.

CAREER: From 1952-57 Clymer served as assistant professor at the University of Minnesota. He was promoted to associate professor at the university in 1957. Then in 1959, Clymer began working as a professor of Elementary Education and Educational Psychology. Prior to this he was a summer professor at State University in Utah in 1953 and 1958. Then he worked as a summer professor at the University of California in 1960. He was a consultant to Cooperative Research Branch, U. S. Office of Education from 1962 until 1966.

Clymer is an honorary life member of the International Reading Association. He served as chairperson of the studies and research committee, 1958-62, board member, 1961-63, and president, 1963-64. He was actively involved in the National Conference on Research in English serving as vice-president, 1963-64 and president 1964-65. He is an honorary life member of National Council of Teachers of English, National Council on Measurement in Education, American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association and Minnesota Reading Association. He was awarded the distinguished Alumnus Award from Wisconsin State University.

WRITING: Clymer, Guy L. Bond and others authored Developmental Reading Tests and Silent Reading Diagnostic Tests, published by Lyons & Camahan in 1955. With help from the same colleagues, Clymer published the Developmental Reading Series in 1962, for grades 7-8. The Developmental Science Series, published in 1963, was written by Clymer, Austin Bond and others for grades 1-6. Clymer, David H. Russell, and others authored Ginn 100 Reading Series, for grades 3-6 in 1966. Clymer was editor of the Reading Research Quarterly and editor of research issues for the Reading Teacher from 1958 until 1966. He has been a member of the editorial advisory board since 1962 and a member of the editorial board of American Educational Publication since 1964.

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Patricia Winters

Dolores Durkin

Dolores Durkin, a professor of education at the University of Illinois, is known for descriptive and observational research on reading instruction. She believes that reading instruction may be planned or unplanned. Planned reading instruction is where the teacher selects materials and procedures for a specific goal. Unplanned reading instruction is where the teacher is wise enough to respond in helpful ways to students' questions and misinterpretations. In an article in the Reading Teacher, she expresses that unplanned instruction has a better chance to succeed than planned instruction. Planned instruction allows prompts that become obvious to students. Durkin believes that planned and unplanned are both essential if the reading ability of students is to be maximally advanced.

Superior teachers know exactly what they are going to teach and are careful about matching instructional procedures with the objectives. Teachers should not instruct just for the sake of instructing. Instruction has been a popular topic for the past decade. The recurring of the components of lessons is still objective, instruction, and application. These ingredients are the tools to effective lessons.

Durkin stresses that comprehending requires the ability to identify an author's words and to understand their meanings in a given context. Knowing words and understanding them results in literal comprehension. Comprehension also depends on the ability to use the author's words to gain information resulting in text-based inferential comprehension. The use of relevant information results in knowledge-based inferential comprehension. These tools are commonly described as the requirements for comprehending.

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Rhonda Jones

William Holmes McGuffey

William H. McGuffey was born in 1800, the son of Alexander McGuffey and the former Anna Holmes. Alexander was a hard-toiling, Scottish Covenanter who wrested a family farm from the wilderness--now Ohio, but then a part of the Northwest Territory. His wife was by all accounts a quiet and serious person. She was ambitious for the son, who took after her in so many ways. She was very hopeful he would enter the ministry.

William did not graduate from Washington College in Pennsylvania until he was 26. His education was disrupted at first by seasonal farm chores and later by the need to earn money to pay tuition. At the age of 14, in Calcutta, Ohio, he opened his first subscription school where he taught the children of 23 families the rudiments of reading and writing. McGuffey on four occasions postponed his college career to conduct classes in Paris, Kentucky.

It is doubtful, however, that McGuffey ever intended to teach grade school all of his life. He soon signed on as professor of ancient languages at Miami University and took up residence in Oxford, Ohio. This is where he entered the Presbyterian ministry, married the daughter of a Dayton judge, had four children, and rose to the prestigious chair of moral philosophy. He became President of Cincinnati College, and a few years later President of Ohio University at Athens. While living in Ohio, William Holmes McGuffey began compiling the materials that would eventually find their way into the Eclectic Readers. McGuffey, as it seems, was in the right place at the right time; it was while holding this high position that he wrote his famous readers.

In the early 1830's, Cincinnati was the cultural hub of the West. The city had two well-stocked libraries and the 800-seat Cincinnati Theater. There were already 50 schools in the town. Some of them were publicly funded. By 1831, Cincinnati publishers were selling 350,000 books a year. In 1833, Cincinnati's Truman & Smith publishing company invited Catherine Beecher, a prominent local educator, to prepare a new textbook series to be marketed in the West.

She declined, suggesting that the publishers approach McGuffey instead. They did, and he gladly accepted, producing the first five volumes of his famous series in his spare time and at little expense. McGuffey only received $1,000 for his labors. He submitted his First and Second Readers in 1836 within a year of signing his contract; the Primer and Third and Fourth Readers were delivered in 1837. McGuffey's younger brother successfully produced the Sixth Reader in 1857.

McGuffey must be given credit as the first author to produce a clearly defined and carefully graded series of one reader for each grade in the elementary school. Similarly in tune with the times is the McGuffey's cry, "We must educate! We must educate!"

Reference

Anna Marie and Cullen Murphy. Onward, upward with McGuffey and those readers. [Online] Available http:web1.searchbank.com/infotrack/session, Nov. 1984.

Mary Ellen Hassell

John J. Pikulski

John J. Pikulski was born in Scranton, Pennsylvania on August 3, 1940. Pikulski earned his bachelor's degree at Wilkes College in 1963. Then he received his master's degree at Temple University in 1965. He attained his doctorate degree in psychology at Temple University. Pikulski married the same year he completed his doctorate in 1969.

Pikulski has held a number of positions in his career. He was a diagnostician in a reading clinic at Temple University from 1965-1967. He served as an assistant supervisor in diagnostic from 1967-1969 and an assistant professor from 1969-1973 at the University of Delaware. Pikulski worked at the York Children's Home as a psychology consultant and Talbot County Medical Schools as a reading consultant in the 1970's. From 1972-1973, Pikulski served as a reading consultant in Newark School District. In 1973, he served as an education consultant for the National Rights to Read Reports in Memphis. Pikulski recently served as the President of the International Reading Association from 1997-98.

Pikulski belongs to a number of associations that have included Memphis American of Psychology, National Right to Read Reports, International Reading Association (former president), NCTE, Kappa Delta Phi, and president of Diamond State Reading Association from 1972-73.

Pikulski is currently writing for the Reading Teacher and has many articles available on the Internet pertaining to reading.

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Donna Money

Jeannette Veatch

Jeannette Veatch was born in Ada, Ohio on April 12, 1910. The following biography includes her educational background, career, accomplishments and honors.

Ms. Veatch received her teaching certificate from Western Michigan University in 1931 and her A.B. in 1937. From there she attained her M.A. degree from New York University in 1948. In 1953, Jeannette earned her Ph.D. in human relations from New York University.

Ms. Veatch began her career teaching elementary education in public schools in Kalamazoo and Grand Rapids, Michigan from 1937-46. She served as a member of the staff education department at the American Museum of Natural History at New York College from 1946-47. Working in Albany from 1947-48, she held the position of research specialist for the New York State Department of Education. From 1948-54, she worked as an instructor of elementary education for New York University. She then moved to Goucher College in 1954 as an associate professor. During the years 1955-58, she was the director of the program development division for Girl Scouts U.S.A. Ms. Veatch held summer teaching seminars during those years at the University of Michigan, University of Wisconsin, Indiana University, Syracuse University, University of Milwaukee, Lehigh University, Macdonald College, and McGill University. From 1958-59 she was an associate professor at the University of Illinois. She then moved to Pennsylvania State University in 1959 to serve as an associate professor. In 1964 she moved to Jersey City State College to be a professor of English and stayed there until 1967. Next she moved to the University of Southern California in Los Angeles to be a visiting professor of education from 1967-68. Finally, Jeannette became a professor of education at Arizona State University in 1968 and remained there for the duration of her career.

Ms. Veatch was a member of NEA, American Federation of Teachers, Delta Kappa Gamma, Association of Childhood Education International, National Council of Teachers, English-American Civil Liberties Union, International Reading Association, and the National Association of Education for Young Children.

Ms. Veatch has been recognized as an accomplished author of many books in the area of literacy. A listing of the books she has authored or co-authored are as follows: Individualizing Your Reading Program (1959), Reading in Elementary Schools (1966), How to Teach Reading With Children's Books - 2nd edition (1968), For Love of Teaching (1973), co-author of Creativity in Teaching: Curriculum for Today's Boys and Girls (1963), co-author of New Frontiers in Education (1966), and co-author of Key Words to Reading (1973).

Jeannette Veatch's professional interests include child study, student teaching, language development and instruction. She is known as a pioneer for her work in the field of literacy and is looked upon with great respect by her peers.

References

Leaders in Education - 5th Edition. (1974) Jaques Cattell Press, R.R. Bowker Company, New York and London.

Who's Who of American Women - 9th Edition. (1975) Marquis Who's Who Incorporated.

Angela Veatch

NOAH WEBSTER

Noah Webster was born on October 16, 1758, in West Hartford, Connecticut. He came from an average colonial family. Noah's father was a farmer and worked as a weaver. His mother worked at home. He had two brothers, Charles and Abraham, who helped their father with the farm work. Noah's two sisters, Mercy and Jerusha, helped their mother keep house and make clothes for the family.

Noah loved learning so his parents let him go to Yale, the only college in Connecticut. He went to New Haven in 1774, when he was only sixteen. Noah's years at Yale coincided with the Revolutionary War. Noah marched in his father's company during the Revolutionary War(1777), but he did not see any action. New Haven had food shortages during this time; therefore, many of Noah's classes were held in Glastonbury.

Noah graduated from Yale in 1778. He wanted to study law, but his parents could not afford to send him to school. He taught school in Glastonbury, Hartford and West Hartford in order to earn a living.

Noah decided that America should learn from American textbooks. His American Spelling Book, written in 1783, sold over a million copies a year. Noah taught children to read, spell and pronounce words for many years. His book was the most popular American book. Ben Franklin taught his granddaughter to read using Noah's book.

In 1789, he married Rebecca Greenleaf. They had eight children. He moved his family to Amherst, Massachusetts, where he helped start Amherst College. He later moved back to New Haven.

At the age of 43, he wrote the first American dictionary. He wrote it because Americans in different parts of the country spelled, pronounced and used words differently. He thought Americans should speak the same way. Noah used American spelling like "color" instead of the English "colour" and music instead of "musick." He added words in English dictionary like "skunk" and

"squash." It took over 27 years to write his book. He finished in 1828, at the age of 70. Noah's dictionary had 70,000 words in it.

Noah Webster did many things in his life. He was a strong advocate of copyright. He was characterized as the father of American copyright law. He wrote textbooks, Americanized the English language, and edited magazines. Noah died on May 28, 1843, at the age of 84. Noah was considered an American hero.

Reference

Online: http://www.ctstateeu.ed/-noahweb/biography.htm/

Martha French

Reluctant Readers Index

Reluctant readers, those students who do not enjoy reading and often do not read well, need books that offer them high-interest content at an easier reading level.

Titles listed below meet reluctant readers' needs for suspense and excitement, and range in readability from fourth to eighth grades.

Brian's Winter / Gary Paulsen
Call Me Francis Tucket / Gary Paulsen
Caught in the Act / Joan Lowery Nixon
Chocolate Fever / Robert Kimmel Smith
A Dangerous Promise / Joan Lowery Nixon
Driver's Ed / Caroline B. Cooney
A Family Apart / Joan Lowery Nixon
The Friendship & The Gold Cadillac / Midred D. Taylor
From the Mixed-Up Files of Mrs. Basil E. Frankweiler / E.L. Konigsburg
In the Face of Danger / Joan Lowery Nixon
Ironman / Chris Crutcher
Jackson Jones and the Puddle of Thorns / Mary Quattlebaum
Journey / Patricia MacLachlan
Keeping Secrets / Joan Lowery Nixon
Mississippi Bridge / Mildred D. Taylor
Mr. Tucket / Gary Paulsen
The Novels of Mildred D. Taylor / Mildred D. Taylor
The Orphan Train Adventures / Joan Lowery Nixon
The Outsiders / S.E. Hinton
A Place to Belong / Joan Lowery Nixon
The River / Gary Paulsen
Rumble Fish / S.E. Hinton
Search for the Shadowman / Joan Lowery Nixon
Seth and Samona / Joanne Hyppolite
The Sign of the Beaver / Elizabeth George Speare
Taming the Star Runner / S.E. Hinton
Tex / S.E. Hinton
That Was Then, This is Now / S.E. Hinton
The Tucket Adventures / Gary Paulsen
Vampire Bugs: Stories Conjured form the Past / Sharon Dennis Wyeth
The Voice on the Radio / Caroline B. Cooney
The War With Grandpa / Robert Kimmel Smith
The Watsons Go to Birmingham--1963 / Christopher Paul Curtis
The World of Daughter McGuire / Sharon Dennis Wyeth

Reading Hot List

Houghton Mifflin Reading/Language Center

http://www.eduplace.com/rdg/index.html

4Kids Reading

http://www.4kids.com/kidread.html

ACE Kids

http://www.acekids.com

The Kids on the Web: Homework Tools

http://www.zen.org/~brendan/kids-homework.html

Read Aloud, Read Along

http://www.parentsoup.com/library/readaloud/

Education by Design

http://www.edbydesign.com/re_strategy.html

Carol Hurst's Children's Literature Site

http://www.carolhurst.com/

Kathy Schrock's Guide for Educators

www.capecod.net/schrockguide/

KinderGuide presents your Online Book Store

www.kinderguide.com/bkstr.html

Multicultural Book Review Homepage

www.isomedia.com/homes/jmele/homepage.html

Family Education

http ://www.familyeducation.com/rrl.asp

B. J. Pinchbeck's Homework Helper

http://tristate.pgh.net/~pinchl3/

ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading, English, and Communication

http://www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/index.html

Electronic Resources for Youth Services

http://chebucto.ns/Education/ERYS/5

Children's Storybooks

http ://www.magickeys.com/books/

Professional Reading List

Books

Anderson, R. C., and et. al. (1984). Becoming a Nation of Readers. Washington D.C.: The National Institute of Education.

Auckerman, Robert C. (1984). Approaches to Beginning Reading. (2nd ed.). John Wiley and Sons.

Bond, Guy, and et. al. (1994). Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction. (7th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon Incorporated.

Chall, Jeanne. (1967). Learning to Read: The Great Debate. McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.

Cohen, J. H., and R. B. Weisner. (1997). Literacy Portfolios: Using Assessment to Guide Instruction. New York: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated.

Ekwall E. E., and J. L. Shanker. (1998). Locating and Correcting Reading Difficulties. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company.

Erickson, Lawrence G. (1995). Supervision of Literacy Programs: Teachers as Grass Roots Chance Agents. Boston: Allyn and Bacon Inc.

Fry, E. B., and D. L. Fountoukidis. (1997). The New Reading Teachers Book of Lists. New York: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated.

Harris, T., and R. Hodges. (1995). The Literacy Dictionary. International Reading Association.

Tiedt S. W., and I. M. Tiedt. (1987). Language Arts Activities for the Classroom. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. Incorporated.

Journals

Kappan. Phi Deta Kappa

Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy. International Reading Association.

The Reading Teacher. International Reading Association.

Reading Research Quarterly. International Reading Association.

Others

Standards for the English Language Arts. (1996). International Reading Association and National Council of Teachers of English.

Trelease, Jim. (1992). The Read Aloud Handbook. Penguin Books.

A REFERENCE OF TESTS FOR READING CONSULTANTS

Achievement Tests

Gates, Arthur I., and Walter H. MacGinitie. Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test. The Riverside Publishing Company.

Greene, H.A., A.N. Jorgensen, and V.H. Kelley. Iowa Silent Reading Test. Harcourt, Brace, and World Incorporated.

Durist, Walter N., and et. al. Metropolitan Achievement Test-Fourth Edition. The Psychological Corporation.

Mental Ability

Dunn, Lloyd M. and et. al. Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised. American Guidance Clinic.

Slosson, Richard L., Charles L. Nicholson, and Terry H. Hebpshman. Slosson Intelligence Test. Slosson Educational Publications, Incorporated.

Thordike, R.L., E.P. Hagen, and J.M. Sattler. Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale. The Riverside Publishing Company.

Wechsler, David. Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Third Edition. Psychological Corporation.

Diagnostic

Gilmore, John V., and Eunice C. Gilmore. Gilmore Oral Reading Test. Harcourt, Brace and Jovanovich, Incorporated.

Spache, George D. Diagnostic Reading Scales. Revised Edition. CTB/McGraw.

Wedorholt, J. Lee, and Brian Bryant. Gray Oral Reading Test-Third Edition. PRO-ED, Inc.

Other

Brigance, Albert H. Brigance Preschool Screen. Curriculum Associates.

Koppitz, Elizabeth M. The Bender Gestalt Test for Young Children. Grune and Stratton, Incorporated.

For Further Test Information:

Kramer, J.J., and J.C. Conoley. (1992). The Eleventh Mental Measurements Yearbook. Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press.

Readability levels for all Newbery Medal books

Year	Title	Author	Readability grade level	Readability grade range
1922	*The Story of Mankind*	Hendrik W. VanLoon	10	7 - 16
1923	*The Voyages of Doctor Dolittle*	Hugh Lofting	8	6 - 10
1924	*The Dark Frigate*	Charles Hawes	8	7 - 9
1925	*Tales From Silver Lands*	Charles Finger	8	8 - 9
1926	*Shen of the Sea*	Arthur B. Chrisman	6	4 - 6
1927	*Smoky, the Cowhorse*	Will James	9	8 - 9
1928	*Gayneck, the Story of a Pigeon*	Dhan Gopal Mukerji	7	6 - 7
1929	*The Trumpeter of Krakow*	Eric P. Kelly	8	7 - 9
1930	*Hitty, Her First Hundred Years*	Rachel Field	8	7 - 9
1931	*The Cat Who Went to Heaven*	Elizabeth Coatsworth	7	6 - 9
1932	*Waterless Mountain*	Laura Adams Armer	7	6 - 8
1933	*Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze*	Elizabeth F. Lewis	7	4 - 9
1934	*Invincible Louisa, The Story of the Author of* Little Women	Cornelia Meigs	8	8 - 9
1935	*Dobry*	Monica Shannon	8	7 - 9
1936	*Caddie Woodlawn*	Carol Ryrie Brink	7	6 - 9
1937	*Roller Skates*	Ruth Sawyer	6	5 - 8
1938	*The White Stag*	Kate Seredy	7	7 - 8
1939	*Thimble Summer*	Elizabeth Enright	6	6 - 7
1940	*Daniel Boone*	James Daugherty	8	8 - 9
1941	*Call It Courage*	Armstrong Sperry	7	6 - 7
1942	*The Matchlock Gun*	Walter D. Edmonds	6	4 - 7
1943	*Adam of the Road*	Elizabeth Janet Gray	8	7 - 9
1944	*Johnny Tremain*	Esther Forbes	6	6 - 7
1945	*Rabbit Hill*	Robert Lawson	9	8 - 11
1946	*Strawberry Girl*	Lois Lenski	5	4 - 6
1947	*Miss Hickory*	Carolyn S. Bailey	7	6 - 7
1948	*The Twenty-One Balloons*	William Pene du Bois	8	7 - 11
1949	*King of the Wind*	Marguerite Henry	7	7
1950	*The Door in the Wall*	Marguerite de Angeli	5	4 - 6
1951	*Amos Fortune, Free Man*	Elizabeth Yates	7	4 - 9
1952	*Ginger Pye*	Eleanor Estes	7	4 - 8
1953	*Secret of the Andes*	Ann Nolan Clark	6	4 - 7
1954	*And Now Miguel*	Joseph Krumgold	6	5 - 7
1955	*The Wheel on the School*	Meindert DeJong	5	3 - 7
1956	*Carry On, Mr. Bowditch*	Jean Lee Latham	5	4 - 7
1957	*Miracles on Maple Hill*	Virginia Sorenson	6	5 - 9
1958	*Rifles for Watie*	Harold Keith	6	4 - 6
1959	*The Witch of Blackbird Pond*	Elizabeth George Speare	7	6 - 8
1960	*Onion John*	Joseph Krumgold	6	5 - 7
1961	*Island of the Blue Dolphins*	Scott O'Dell	5	3 - 6
1962	*The Bronze Bow*	Elizabeth G. Speare	6	4 - 7
1963	*A Wrinkle in Time*	Madeline L'Engle	6	3 - 8
1964	*It's Like This, Cat*	Emily Cheney Neville	7	7 - 8
1965	*Shadow of a Bull*	Maia Wojciechowska	7	6 - 8
1966	*I, Juan de Pareja*	Elizabeth B. de Trevino	7	6 - 9
1967	*Up a Road Slowly*	Irene Hunt	9	8 - 12
1968	*From the Mixed-Up Files of Mrs. Basil E. Frankweiler*	E.L. Konigsburg	6	5 - 8
1969	*The High King*	Lloyd Alexander	7	5 - 8
1970	*Sounder*	William H. Armstrong	7	6 - 8
1971	*Summer of the Swans*	Betsy Byars	7	6 - 9
1972	*Mrs. Frisby and the Rats of NIMH*	Robert C. O'Brien	7	6 - 8
1973	*Julie of the Wolves*	Jean Craighead George	6	5 - 7
1974	*The Slave Dancer*	Paula Fox	7	3 - 9
1975	*M.C. Higgins, the Great*	Virginia Hamilton	6	5 - 6
1976	*The Grey King*	Susan Cooper	7	6 - 8
1977	*Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry*	Mildred D. Taylor	8	8

(continued)

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Readability levels for all Newbery Medal books (cont'd.)

Year	Title	Author	Readability grade level	Readability grade range
1978	*Bridge to Terabithia*	Katherine Paterson	6	3 - 6
1979	*The Westing Game*	Ellen Raskin	7	7 - 8
1980	*A Gathering of Days: A New England Girl's Journal, 1830–1832*	Joan W. Blos	7	4 - 8
1981	*Jacob Have I Loved*	Katherine Paterson	8	7 - 8
1982	*A Visit to William Blake's Inn: Poems for Innocent and Experienced Travelers*	Nancy Willard	6	5 - 7
1983	*Dicey's Song*	Cynthia Voigt	7	7
1984	*Dear Mr. Henshaw*	Beverly Cleary	5	4 - 10
1985	*The Hero and the Crown*	Robin McKinley	8	8
1986	*Sarah, Plain and Tall*	Patricia MacLachlan	5	3 - 6
1987	*The Whipping Boy*	Sid Fleischman	5	4 - 8
1988	*Lincoln: A Photobiography*	Russell Freedman	9	9 - 10
1989	*Joyful Noise: Poems for Two Voices*	Paul Fleischman	5	1 - 11
1990	*Number the Stars*	Lois Lowry	8	7 - 10
1991	*Maniac Magee*	Jerry Spinelli	6	5 - 7
1992	*Shiloh*	Phyllis R. Naylor	4	3 - 7
1993	*Missing May*	Cynthia Rylant	7	7
1994	*The Giver*	Lois Lowry	7	7
1995	*Walk Two Moons*	Sharon Creech	6	4 - 7
1996	*The Midwife's Apprentice*	Karen Cushman	7	6 - 9
1997	*The View from Saturday*	E.L. Konigsburg	7	6 - 9

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